IMPACT OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON WORKPLACE BEHAVIOUR AMONG STAFF OF SELECT UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA

A

Synopsis

Submitted in the partial fulfilment for the requirements of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Management

Submitted by

Manisha Agarwal

Under the supervision of

Dr. Arvind Kumar
Co-Supervisor
Assistant Professor
Department of Management
Faculty of Social Sciences

Prof. Shiv Kumar
Supervisor
Department of Management
Faculty of Social Sciences

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DAYALBAGH EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY)

DAYALBAGH, AGRA- 282005

2020

Ostracism is defined as “Any act or acts of ignoring or excluding of an individual or groups by an individual or group”

(Williams 2001)

SECTION 1

1. INTRODUCTION

The workplace is an important social context where individuals spend a lot of their time and interact with one another. It is important for employees to maintain positive working relationships as the quality of the relationship can greatly affect an individual’s workplace attitudes and behaviours. Consequently, as maintaining favourable working relationships are crucial for one’s performance, Fox and Stallworth (2005) mentioned that the workplace is one of the most important social contexts where ostracism occurs; thereby, workplace ostracism has gained some attention as studies have found workplace ostracism to negatively affect workplace attitudes and behaviours. For instance, (Robinson, 2013) proposed that there are pragmatic and psychological effects that can mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and behavioural outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and deviant behaviour. They argued that working relationships, functional support, and fundamental needs such as the need to belong and self-esteem are affected by workplace ostracism which then can explain workplace behavioural outcomes.

1.1 Definition and Characterization of Ostracism

The phenomenon of ostracism was introduced by Williams (1997). In simpler language, ostracism is defined when an individual is ignored or excluded by others (Williams, 2001). Ostracism is a part of human life and can come in various forms such as exile and banishment on one extreme and complete end while simply being given the silent treatment or avoiding eye contact from a minimal end (Ferris et al., 2008). A several authors and researchers has defined ostracism in some other related terms like linguistic ostracism specifically reflects “any situation in which two or more people converse in a language that others around them cannot understand” (Dotan-eliaz, Sommer, & Rubin, 2009: 364). Social rejection has

been defined as "when one person seeks to form and maintain at least a temporary alliance or relationship with someone else and that other person says no (at least implicitly)" (Blackhart et al., 2009: 270) and organizational shunning, "the systematic exclusion of a person who was once an included member of the group" (Anderson, 2009: 36). The experience of ostracism threatens four fundamental human needs. They are the need for self-esteem, the need to belong, the need for control and the need for a meaningful existence (Williams, 1997). In the review of literature Williams' (2009) developed the Temporal Needs Threat (TNT) model on the basis of real-life examples.

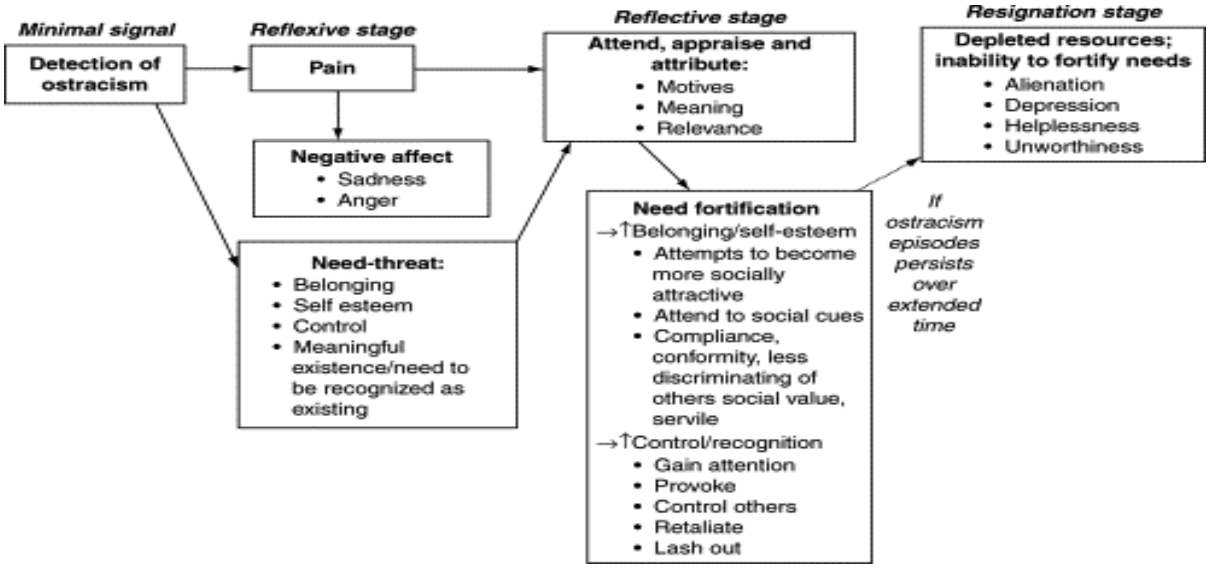

Figure 1.1 Temporal need threat model of ostracism

Source: Williams, 2009

The TNT model posits three main stages: immediate (or reflexive), coping (or reflective), and long-term (or resignation). During the **Reflexive stage**, ostracism is felt as pain and as a threat to four fundamental needs: belonging, self-esteem, control, and meaningful existence and leads to increase the anger and sadness. During **Reflective stage,** ostracized individuals reflect on the meaning and relevance of the ostracism experience and, if it merits attention, will think and act in ways that fortify the threatened need(s). In this stage ostracised individual try to identify the coping strategies and behave accordingly but if exposure to ostracism continues then it leads to the **Resignation stage,** then the individual's resources

for coping are depleted, and he or she is likely to experience alienation, depression, helplessness and unworthiness.

It has been observed that ostracised events not only occur in social gathering but also in workplace, despite efforts for inclusion in the organizations, exclusion is experienced by employees at many places. Feelings of exclusion, in terms of gender, culture, power, status and religion etc cannot be avoided. Blummer (1958), mentions that exclusion deliberately happen through collective interest of people often motivated towards the sharing of material resources like land, jobs, decision making authority and rules and regulation. Theory of unfavourable inclusion (Sen, 2000) suggests that there are certain culturally identified groups who are forced to engage in inferior activities like low paid, polluting, low designated job who remain unnoticed, where as we give precedence to profitable, socially coveted and high paid activities. This kind of practice might be a common phenomenon in workplace and organization. In India, women workers are engaged mostly in low income sector while few percentages of women (08%) workers are in better paying modern sector. In addition, women worker is paid only 60% of the wage of a male workers (Papola & Sahu, 2012). Women are employed in low position mostly labourer, attendant and machine operator. This is based upon the belief that women workers are less capable and active than male worker. Finally, the extent of exclusion is not less for migrant and outside employees. They are unable to cope due to their differences in culture, language, ethnic value, religion etc. It has been suggested that unemployment, low paid causal and informal employment without social security as forms of social exclusion having direct relationship with poverty and social relationship. It is found that people who are more excluded are more likely to be aggressive, both towards those who excluded them and uninvolved others (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice & Stuche, 2001). Ostracized people tend to show maladaptive responses and are less likely to engage in prosocial behaviour (Twenge, et al., 2001). The literature makes us realize that ostracism prevails in organizations anywhere in world including India.

In line with these issues, the present researcher wants to explore the factors that influence the workplace ostracism and to identify the moderating effects of demographic variables on workplace ostracism and

workplace behaviour. The study shall be focusing on examining the role of psychological empowerment towards different workplace behaviour among employees and aims at giving suggestions to organizations for developing harmonious relationship among employees. Exposure to workplace ostracisms may have adverse effects on work related outcomes like lower job satisfaction, emotionally exhaust the employees etc. Whereas psychological empowerment not only enhances ones work related outcomes, it can help to manage the adverse effect of exposure to workplace ostracism. So, the study shall be focusing on exploring the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviours in higher education sector of India, since the higher education sector of India also have high diversified workforce, which gives rise to exclusion and rejection among co-workers and ultimately results in workplace ostracism.

SECTION 2

2. OVERVIEW OF HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR IN INDIA

The essence of Human Resource Development is education, which plays a significant and remedial role in balancing the socio-economic fabric of the country. Since citizens of India are its most valuable resource, our billion-strong nation needs the nurture and care in the form of basic education to achieve a better quality of life. This warrants an all-round development of the citizens, which can be achieved by building strong foundations in education. In pursuance of this mission, Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) was created on September 26, 1985, through the 174th amendment to the Government of India (Allocation of Business) Rules, 1961. Currently, the MHRD works through two departments:

- Department of School Education & Literacy
- Department of Higher Education

While the Department of School Education & Literacy is responsible for development of school education and literacy in the country, Department of Higher Education takes care of what is one of the largest Higher Education systems of the world, after the United States and China.

The higher education system in India includes private and public universities. Public universities are supported by the Government of India and the state governments, while private universities are supported

by various bodies and societies. Universities are recognized by the University Grants Commission (UGC), which draws its power from the University Grants Commission Act, 1956. In addition, 16 Professional Councils are established, controlling different aspects of accreditation and coordination. The types of universities controlled by the UGC include Central universities, State universities, Deemed universities and Private universities.

In addition to the above universities, other institutions are granted the permission to autonomously award degrees, and while not called "university" by name, they act as such. They usually fall under the administrative control of the Department of Higher Education. In official documents they are called "autonomous bodies", "university-level institutions" or even simply "other central institutions".

Table 1: Total number of universities in India (as on 31.03.2019)

Universities	**Total Number**
Central Universities	48
State Universities	399
Private Universities	334
Deemed Universities	126
Total	**907**

Source: www.ugc.ac.in

According to prestigious world level universities rankings like THE (Times Higher Education) from U.K. (London) and Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU) by the Centre for World-Class Universities at Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China, no Indian university has marked its presence in top 200 universities of the world in the year 2019. Only 5 Indian universities have marked its presence in top 400 universities of world and 4 of them are autonomous institutes (IIT‟s).

SECTION 3

3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section covers the brief summary of literature on the topic. The section is divided into three subsections, the conceptual coverage of literature, literature map and synthesised literature review. The literature review is first classified in two broad categories – paper content and methodological approach.

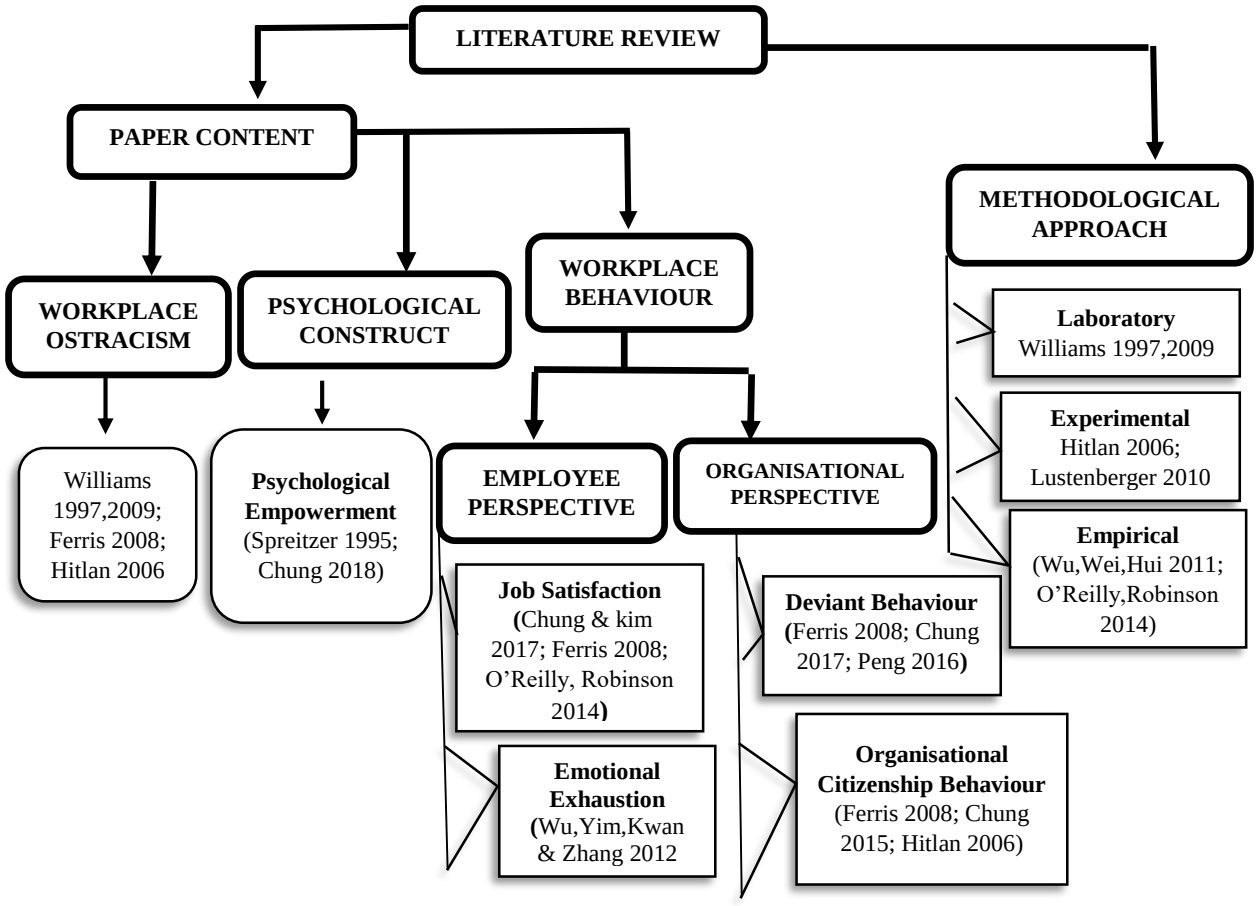

Figure 3.1 Snapshot of literature review

Source: Author's Compilation

Paper content is further classified into workplace ostracism, psychological construct and workplace behaviour. The workplace behaviour is classified into employee perspective and organisational perspective. The methodological approach is classified into laboratory, experimental and empirical approach. (Refer Fig 3.1)

3.1 PAPER CONTENT

3.1.1 Workplace Ostracism

Workplace ostracism has been defined as "the extent to which an individual perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in workplace" (Williams, 2001). A series of studies in the fields of psychology, sociology, and pedagogy (e.g., Gruter & Masters, 1986; Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003; Twengeetal.,2001) have converged to confirm the notion that ostracism is a powerful, distinct, and regular occurrence. For example, psychologists have found that ostracism activates the same areas of the brain that physical pain does (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003). Its omission from this line of research has arisen in part because ostracism at work has been studied under other labels. For example, bullying research conceptualizes ostracism as a passive form of bullying (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Similarly, workplace ostracism has been studied under labels such as deviant behaviour (Robinson&Bennett, 1995), organizational undermining behaviour (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and counterproductive work behaviour (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Research also has found a distinct impact of ostracism as compared to other forms of aggressive behaviours. For example, Williams and Nida (2009) found that ostracism has a worse impact on the victims' self-esteem than bullying does; that is, the victims of bullying are at least satisfied that others think they are important enough to exert an effort to bully them. In contrast, ostracism may be differentiated from other forms of aggression as an act of omission rather than commission (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013). (Zimmerman, Carter-Sowell, & Xu, 2018) examined differences in the faculty experiences and outcomes of workplace ostracism, and analyses of department gender ratios suggested that the proportion of women in the department did not reduce the amount of workplace ostracism experienced by women. (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2019) The study showed that workplace ostracism could be reduced by displaying the behavioral integrity and breaking down the barriers preventing effective communication and discussion in the 13 state universities in Turkey. Workplace ostracism is the personal perception of the individuals who are excluded and ignored by other in the workplace (Leung et al., 2011). Co-workers may not ask their colleague about going lunch

together, they may ignore their colleague's recommendations at meetings, or they may fail to pay back in their own coin, for example, when their particular colleagues send greetings to them (Balliet and Ferris, 2013). Workplace ostracism is a very strong variable that prevents feelings of belonging and reduces the contribution made to the job (O'Reilly and Robinson, 2009). It is largely acknowledged that ostracism can harm physical and mental wellbeing, damage employees' job satisfaction and commitment to work, hinder organizational citizenship conducts, and diminish performance (Wu et al., 2012; Ferris et al., 2008). Robinson, (2013) developed a broad model of ostracism in organisation, where he proposed organizationally relevant factors that may cause different types of ostracism, moderate the experiences of ostracism at work, moderate the reactions of targets and examined organisationally relevant behavioural outcomes of ostracism.

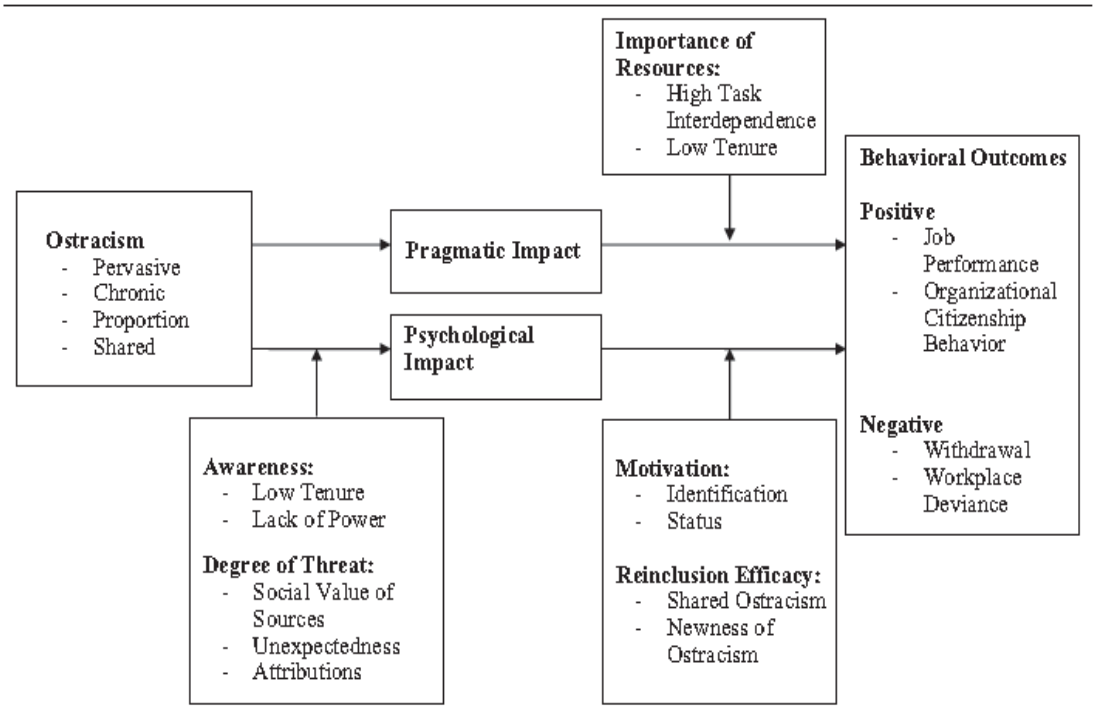

Figure 3.2 Integrated model of ostracism

Source: Robinson, 2013

3.1.2 Psychological Empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1988) were amongst the first to apply the motivational approach in conceptualising empowerment as the psychological motivation of people in the workplace. They claim that psychological empowerment is a process of enhancing employees' feelings of self-efficacy by identifying conditions within the workplace that foster feelings of powerlessness and removing them by means of both formal organisational practices and informal systems of providing efficacy information. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) build on the work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) by conceptualising empowerment as energy, instead of power, authority or capacity. In this sense, empowerment is not merely sharing authority to give more control over the environment or promoting feelings of self-efficacy, but more importantly, inspiring an employee to experience increased intrinsic task motivation. In Bandura's model (1989) of human agency, he suggests that humans are influenced by what they have perceived instead of the objective realities (Bandura, 1997). In keeping with this notion, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) state that employees' judgements about the observable organisational conditions are shaped by their subjective interpretations of reality.

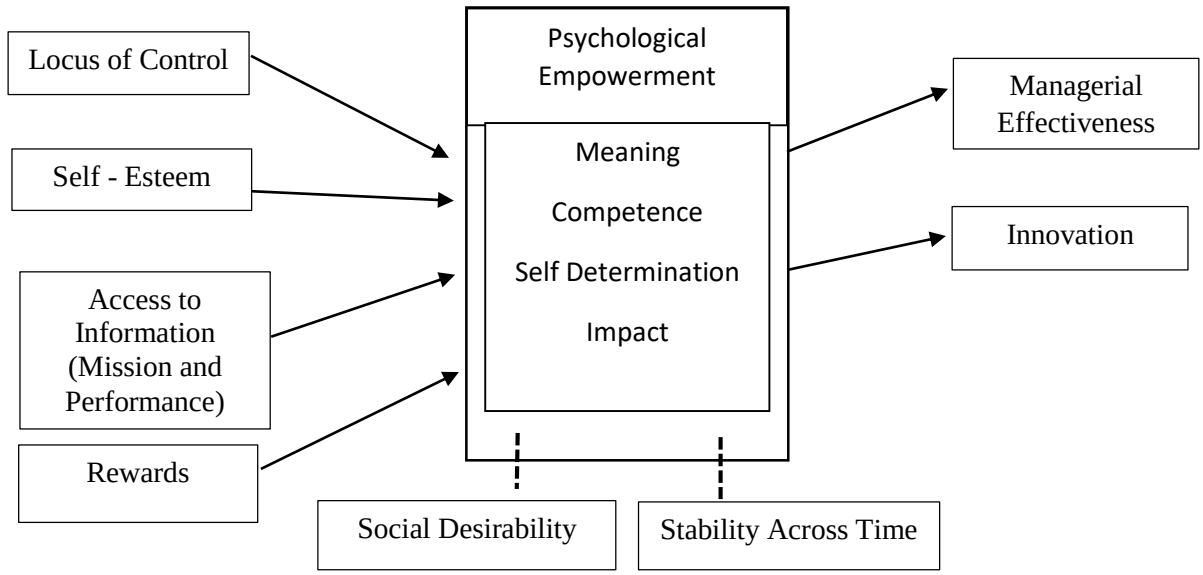

Figure 3.3 Partial nomological network of psychological empowerment in the workplace

Source: Spreitzer, 1995

Flowing from this, (Spreitzer, 1995) defines empowerment as a motivational construct manifested through four cognitions, namely, meaning (subjective assessment of one's job's importance); competence (personal sense of efficacy to perform a job with skill); self-determination (sense of control, autonomy and freedom of choice in initiating actions) and impact (one's ability to influence certain outcomes in the work environment). Together these cognitions reflect an employee's active orientation at work, in which he or she wishes to be and feel able to shape the work role and context. According to MacPhee et al. (2014), a psychological perspective on empowerment indicates that empowerment is a dynamic construct that reflects individual beliefs about the person-environment relationship. Chiang and Hsieh's (2012) research indicate that psychological empowerment significantly influences organisational citizenship behaviours, which impact on organisational performance.

Chung, (2018) studied found that perceived stress mediates the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behaviour, voicing behaviour, and task performance only when individuals perceived low levels of psychological empowerment.

3.1.3 Workplace Behaviour

In organizational psychology, researchers have given special focus upon job attitudes and behaviours which are based on employees' feelings, likings or disliking's, preferences or choices towards the job and organisation as a whole. Depending upon the situation or circumstances, employees show either positive or negative behaviour. Sometimes in the workplace there are many events occur which not only harm employee's well-being but also affect the organisation. So, on the basis of this workplace behaviours can be divided into to two categories one is organizational perspective and the other is employee perspective.

3.1.3.1 Employee Perspective

Workplace ostracism with the passage of time declines the possibilities of interaction with the people at the workplace and this would ultimately affect the employees' mental health, attitude and behaviour towards work (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015; Hitlan & Noel, 2009). Ostracized organizational members may display deteriorated psychological wellbeing (Wu et al., 2012), unfavourable job attitudes

(Richman & Leary, 2009), negatively influence physical health (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008), work–family conflict (Grandey et al., 2005), job performance (Cropanzano et al., 2003), and high blood pressure (Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997). Studies of Williams (1997; 2001) mentioned that ostracism is a personal stressor which can lead to the mental stress. Grandey and Cropanzani (1999) employees who are facing stress at workplace is strongly linked to such negative outcomes like life distress. Workplace ostracism is positively related to depression, anxiety and also decreased levels of satisfaction (Ferris et al., 2008B; Hitlan et al., 2006).

3.1.3.1.1 Job Satisfaction

Chung & Kim, (2017) studied the mediating effect of job satisfaction on workplace ostracism and the found that workplace ostracism is negatively related to job satisfaction. (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008) also, empirically tested that workplace ostracism decrease the level of job satisfaction.

3.1.3.1.2 Emotional Exhaustion

Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, (2012) examined the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee psychological distress, where he found that workplace ostracism is positively related to emotional exhaustion. Naz, Li, Khan, & Khan, (2017) has proved that the ostracize having personality type A are the individuals‟ who are hasty, action oriented, antagonistic, intolerant and more prone to emotional exhaustion.

3.1.3.2 Organisational Perspective

There are many aspects of workplace ostracism that can harm an organization by many ways. Study of O'Reilly and Robinson (2009) mentioned that workplace ostracism is very influential phenomena to decrease contribution to the workplace. There are some other outcomes that could ultimately harm an organization that are taken from the few studies that are: organizational citizenship behavior, workplace deviance (Lee & Allen, 2002), job withdrawals (Ferris et al., 2008B), decreased job performance contributions (Hitlan et al., 2006) and even workplace deviance (Hitlan & Noel, 2009).

3.1.3.2.1 Deviant Behaviour

Chung, (2017) found that person organisation fit mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and organizational citizenship behaviour and deviant behaviour. (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, (2014) showed that a high tendency to base self-evaluation on job performance was associated with weaker relationships between ostracism and citizenship and deviant behaviour.

3.1.3.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Among field studies, some have reported no association between workplace ostracism and citizenship behaviour, such as helping co-workers (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008) Study 1; while others have reported a significant negative association (e.g., (Balliet & Ferris, 2012): Study 3; (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2014); (Wu, Liu, Kwan, & Lee, 2015)).

3.2 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Researchers conducted different types of studies to add meaning to workplace ostracism literature.

3.2.1 Experimental studies Hitlan et.al (2006) demonstrates the potentially unique effects of language-based ostracism on social interaction in a work environment. Knowing the effects of language-based ostracism might help organizations to become proactive in developing strategies to overcome the negative effects of such behavior. Lustenberger & Jagacinski, (2010) Two experiments investigated the effects of ostracism on performance and intrinsic motivation. Participants were either included or ostracized via an online ball-tossing game and then completed two trials of an interesting word-search task, results indicated that ostracized participants performed more poorly and experienced lower positive mood and relatedness than included participants. Balliet & Ferris, (2012) has yielded mixed findings regarding the relation of ostracism to prosocial behaviour and concluded that by examining three studies- a scenario, experimental and field on employed adults that individuals who are less oriented towards future outcomes engage in less prosocial behaviours with others who have ostracised them during prior interactions.

3.2.2 Laboratory studies Williams, (1997) captured the psychological drama of being socially ostracized in a laboratory setting by developing the ball tossing game. Presented a new experimental ostracism paradigm that he employed in his laboratory to test a need threat model. He also summarized ongoing

qualitative interviews with long-term users and victims of the "silent treatment," a form of ostracism commonly used in close dyadic relationships. Williams, (2009) proposed the temporal need threat model where he described three stages of ostracism and concluded that exposure to ostracism over time depletes the resources necessary to motivate the individual to fortify threatened needs.

The entire summary of Literature Review is presented in Annexure 1.

3.3 Problem Statement

After an extensive and exhaustive review of previous research studies the researcher found the gap that there are limited studies in Indian context and a study by (Sahoo, 2015) " Moderating role of emotional intelligence and psychological capital towards the relationship between workplace ostracism and work attitudes" shows how emotional intelligence and psychological capital moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and work attitudes of staff of manufacturing units in Odisha. The findings of this work are encouraging that both moderators have moderated effectively but the investigators have not included other work-related attitudes like job satisfaction, work engagement, turnover intentions, Job search behaviour etc and as the study was restricted to manufacturing sector, it would be unwise to generalize the findings to other types of organization. In this study, survey data were used among employees and the researcher could not include employees working over other sectors like banking, software, teaching etc. It appears that the previous research literature fails to reflect the issue of ostracism studied in Indian context. In addition, the researcher found the gap in the literature (Lustenberger & Jagacinski, Exploring the Effects of Ostracism onPerformance and Intrinsic Motivation, 2010) researchers should examine possible antecedents of ostracism in organizations, an area sufficiently lacking in research. It could very well be that certain types of people are likely to ostracize more than others, and, likewise, certain types of people may be more prone to being ostracizes than others. Specific individual-difference (e.g., personality) and situational variables have yet to be identified as antecedents of engaging in ostracism behaviors. These variables, along with others such as organizational climates and features of the work environment, all represent un-explored possible predictors of ostracism in the workplace.

(Chung, 2018) ostracism also exists in the workplace, research needs to address how organizations and managers can help prevent workplace ostracism. Researchers and consultants must try to identify dominant factors which can withstand or reduce the negative outcomes of workplace ostracism. One such emerging construct is psychological empowerment.

Furthermore in context of India, selective measures to improve Higher Educational Sector, were initiated by the Human Resource Development Ministry, for which The Standing Committee on Human Resource Development was constituted, which submitted its report on issues and challenges before higher educational sector in India, they mentioned various challenges like the Gross enrolment ratio (GER) for higher education India is fairly low compared to other countries such as the UK and USA, lack of employable skills in students and the number of teaching positions (lying vacant) which selectively reflects that one of the possible reason for poor performance of higher educational sector in India could be workplace ostracism along with other factors.

Hence, it can be argued that for future studies in this selective area should emphasise on inclusion of select variables, which were not included in previous study due to some limitations. Therefore, to explore the relationship of previously omitted variables influencing ostracism, a comprehensive and enhanced model of ostracism should be studied.

Thus, the current study shall focus on addressing the impact of workplace ostracim on workplace behaviour and moderating effect of psychological empowerment and demographic variables upon the dynamics of relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour in select organization.

Therefore, the problem statement of the proposed present study is:

To study the impact of workplace ostracism on workplace behaviour with moderating effect of psychological empowerment and demographic variables in higher educational sector of India.

SECTION 4

4.1 Need of Study

India is a diverse country, where people belong to different culture, religion and speak distinct languages. So, employees from all over India with distinct demographic background work in the organisation, conceptually referred as workplace diversity. Due to this it has been seen that in organisation generally employees form two groups- dominant group and submissive group. The minority group employees in an organization usually belong to this submissive group. These minority employees may include employees from either ethnic, religious, linguistic and gender base. Generally, their representations in any organizations are less. Many a times, they may have the feelings of being ostracized by other employees in the workplace (Ferris et al. 2008). This can reduce sense of belongingness and workplace contribution (O' Reilly & Robinson, 2009), which can lead to anger (Chow, Tiedens, & Goven, 2008), negative mood (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007) and lower level of satisfaction (Hitlan et al. 2005). Adequate number of studies has not been carried out to examine the relationship of workplace ostracism with work related behaviours like job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, deviant behaviour, Job tension, etc in India. The present study will be a major contribution towards that.

Secondly, India's higher education system is the third largest in the world but still some improvements are required. According to the Standing Committee on Human Resource Development submitted its report on 'Issues and challenges before higher educational sector in India' on February 8, 2017. They reported various issues like the total number of sanctioned teaching posts in various Central Universities are 16,699 for professors, 4,731 for associate professors, and 9,585 for assistant professors. Out of the total sanctioned teaching posts, 5,925 (35%) professor posts, 2,183 (46%) associate professor posts and 2,459 (26%) assistant professor posts are vacant, another issue they stated that the GER for higher education in India is fairly low compared to other countries such as the UK and USA. In India, GER in higher education has almost tripled over a period of 15 years, going from 9% in 2002-03 to 26% in 2017-18 and another issue has been observed by the Standing Committee is lack of employable skills in students of technical education. Thus, after keeping in mind the deteriorated quality of qualified graduates in India. It is probable that, the working culture of the universities is below par. Previous researches have shown that

a high level of workplace ostracism in organizations is a major reason for withdrawal and degraded performance of employees. Thus, there is a need to find out the impact of workplace ostracism on workplace behaviour so that unfavourable consequents can be minimized in order to enhance the performance and organisation citizenship behaviour of teaching staff.

Thirdly, the academicians, researchers and consultants must try to identify dominant factors which can withstand or reduce the negative outcomes of workplace ostracism. One such emerging construct is psychological empowerment. Spreitzer,(1995) defines empowerment as a motivational construct manifested through four cognitions, namely, meaning (subjective assessment of one's job's importance); competence (personal sense of efficacy to perform a job with skill); self-determination (sense of control, autonomy and freedom of choice in initiating actions) and impact (one's ability to influence certain outcomes in the work environment). Together these cognitions reflect an employee's active orientation at work, in which he or she wishes to be and feel able to shape the work role and context. We can assume that psychological empowerment would moderate the effect of workplace ostracism on job tension, emotional exhaustion and deviant behaviour. Higher level of ostracism often tends to low organization citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Instead of having negative experiences from ostracism and loosing trust in the organization, employees may strive to be more committed and involved towards organizations if they have enough psychological empowerment. Studies reveal that psychological empowerment moderate the psychological stress occur in workplace (Chung, 2018) and makes positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour (Bester, Stander, & Zyl, 2015). It is quite understandable that employees need to be motivated and psychologically empowered. If they are motivated and self-determinant then they can have healthy work performance. Thus, the researcher forecasts that psychological empowerment may moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour in Indian context. The present study is an attempt to verify these assumptions. The findings from the study will definitely provide valuable inputs for designing training and intervention program in organization.

Lastly, It has been observed that major researches has been done on investigating the relationship between workplace ostracism and its consequents, very few researchers (Scott & Duffy, 2015) (Wu, Wei, & Hui, 2011) have explored the antecedents of workplace ostracism in an organizational context. They suggested that competitive cooperative goals with supervisors could trigger impede ostracism (Wu, Liu, Kwan, & Lee, 2015). Accordingly, future research could seek to identify the predictors or factors that might contribute to the emergence of ostracism, which would provide a better understanding of how to avoid workplace ostracism, which is pivotal for the well-being of employees and the success of organizations. Thus, the purpose of this study is to explore the factors of workplace ostracism influencing workplace behaviours.

The research gaps as revealed through the critical review of literature raise some contextual research questions which the researcher shall seek to address in the present study.

1. Does workplace ostracism affect workplace behaviour of employees?

2. How psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour?

3. What is the moderating role of demographic variables on the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour?

4. What are the factors which affect workplace ostracism with respect to workplace behaviour?

4.2. Objectives of Study

In the light of above research questions, the objectives of the present study are:

Objective 1: To explore the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour.

Here, researcher propose to explore the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour namely job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, deviant behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Objective 2: To examine the moderating effect of Psychological empowerment over workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour.

Here, researcher propose to examine how psychological empowerment moderates the workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour.

Objective 3: To examine the moderating effect of demographics on the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour.

Here, researcher propose to examine the moderating effect of demographic variables like age, gender, designation etc on the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour.

Objective 4: To propose the competent behavioural model on the basis of outcome of study.

Here, researcher propose the competent behavioural model on the basis of the findings of the study.

SECTION 5

5.1 Conceptual Framework and Methodology

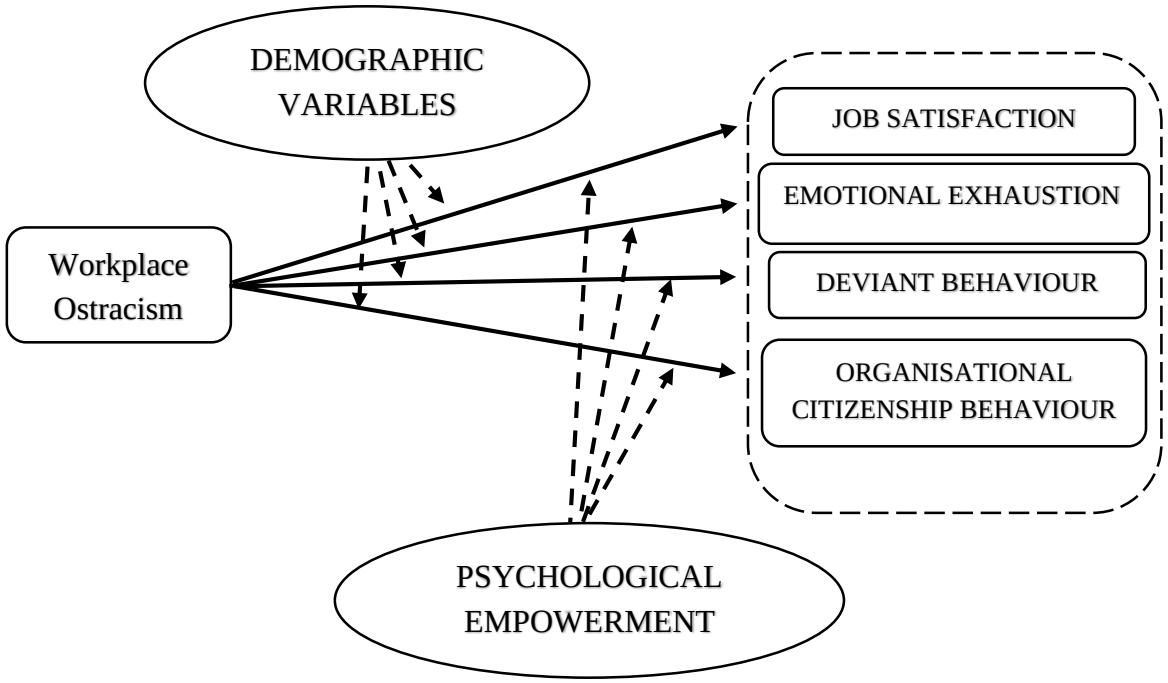

Figure 5.1 Proposed conceptual framework

Source: Author's Compilation

The conceptual framework is adapted from (Williams K. D., 2009) Temporal Need Threat Model, (Robinson, 2013) Integrated model of ostracism and (Chung, 2018). The framework represents the

relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviour and the moderating effects of psychological empowerment and demographic variables. In this proposed research, the researcher shall carry out the research on the basis of the suggested framework as presented in Figure 3.2. Some modifications have been made by the researcher in the original framework in terms of introducing the specific behavioural outcomes in context of proposed research problem to be studied by the researcher. The model will examine the impact of workplace ostracism on workplace behaviours and also identify the moderating effect of psychological empowerment and demographic variables.

5.2. Methodology

This research work shall be a descriptive research study based on survey technique. In order to make study more reliable, data from both primary and secondary sources will be collected. The primary data will be collected from the selected study sample, using the appropriate sampling techniques followed by the analysis of the results through use of appropriate statistical tools to draw logical inferences and valid conclusion of the research.

5.2.1. Hypotheses

The study will be carried out in order to test the following hypotheses. The hypotheses for the study are drawn on the bases of following facts, previous researches and research question.

5.2.1.1. Workplace Ostracism and Job Satisfaction

Excluded individuals are highly likely to perceive negative cognitive evaluations of other individuals (Twenge et al. 2001). Individuals feel some level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending upon the nature of their job and organization. It is also true that some aspects of the job are more satisfying than the others. Due to these negative consequences, workplace ostracism can negatively affect job satisfaction and studies have found support for the negative relationship between workplace ostracism and job satisfaction (e.g. Ferris 2008). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{1A} : Workplace ostracism will be negatively related to Job Satisfaction

5.2.1.2. Workplace Ostracism and Emotional Exhaustion

Previous research has shown that employees who experience workplace ostracism are prone to emotional exhaustion (Wu, et.al, 2011 & Chen et.al , 2018). COR theory provides a useful framework for understanding the effect of workplace ostracism on emotional exhaustion. It predicts that employees who experience workplace ostracism lose social contact as a means of sharing their thoughts or feelings (H. Liu & Xia, 2016), causing their need to share emotions to go unmet (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). To restrain emotional reactions, ostracized employees must consume mental resources, which lead to emotional exhaustion (H. Liu & Xia, 2016). In a survey of 248 hotel employees, Qian, Yang, Wang, Huang, and Song (2017) found that workplace ostracism was positively related to emotional exhaustion. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{1B} : Workplace ostracism will be positively related to Emotional Exhaustion

5.2.1.3. Workplace ostracism and Organisational citizenship behaviour

Ostracized individuals will be less likely to engage in positive work behaviour such as helping and prosocial behaviours (Chung, 2018).In order to engage in citizenship behavior, individuals need to regulate themselves in order to maintain the persistence and effort needed to perform tasks and maintain the good image of organizational citizens (Bolino, 1999; Latham & Pinder, 2005). (Chung, 2017) found that when individuals are ostracized, they are likely to believe they are misfits and therefore are less likely to engage in positive behaviors such as citizenship behaviors, meanwhile retaining a tendency to engage in workplace deviant behaviors. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{1C} : Workplace ostracism will be negatively related to Organisational citizenship behaviour

5.2.1.4. Workplace Ostracism and Deviant Behaviour

According to the beliefs of negative reciprocity, ostracized individuals rationalize that it is acceptable to retaliate directly to those who have excluded them which in turn might cause them to engage in more

interpersonal forms of counterproductive work behaviours (Zhao et al., 2012). Hence, research has found workplace ostracism to be related with negative workplace behaviours such as aggression (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001) and workplace deviant behaviour (Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan & Noel, 2009). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{1D} : Workplace ostracism will be positively related to deviant behaviour

5.2.1.5 Moderating Effect of Psychological Empowerment on the Relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Workplace Behaviour

Studies reveal that psychological empowerment moderate the psychological stress occur in workplace (Chung, 2018) and (Bester, Stander, & Zyl, 2015) found that enhancing the perceptions of psychological empowerment amongst employees will result in generating organisational citizenship behaviours amongst employees, which will decrease their intention to leave the manufacturing division. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H_{2A}: Psychological empowerment will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and Job Satisfaction

H_{2B}: Psychological empowerment will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and Emotional Exhaustion.

H_{2C}: Psychological empowerment will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**.**

H_{2D}: Psychological empowerment will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and Deviant Behaviour**.**

5.2.1.6. Moderating Effects of Demographics on the Relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Workplace Behaviour

H_{3A}: There is a significant moderating effect of demographic variables on workplace ostracism and Job satisfaction

H_{3B}: There is a significant moderating effect of demographic variables on workplace ostracism and emotional exhaustion.

H_{3C}: There is a significant moderating effect of demographic variables on workplace ostracism and organisational citizenship behaviour

H_{3D}: There is a significant moderating effect of demographic variables on workplace ostracism and deviant behaviour.

5.2.2 Scope of the Study

The reason for choosing this geographical area is the state of Uttar Pradesh (UP) and Madhya Pradesh (MP) in India has a rich history of education and learning. There are 73 and 42 universities in the state of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh. Students from over the state and from across the country come to Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh to earn degrees from these colleges and universities. Uttar Pradesh comes at number one with the highest student enrolment followed by Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. But still there are many issues and challenges the UP Higher Education is facing like the low quality of education in the state (and dearth of jobs) is reflected in UP's high unemployment which leads to high migration to other states for job. This brings in concerns that students are getting degrees, but not getting employable hands-on skill". The quality of students can at least partly be the reflection of performance of a teacher. Thus, after keeping in mind the deteriorated quality of qualified graduates in India, it is probable that, performance of teaching staff in universities is below par. In order to improve the quality of education UP's Deputy Chief Minister Dinesh Sharma said "To ensure quality education in the state, a vision document is being prepared and work has started on a four-point programme; 'sukhi man shikshak' (happy teachers), 'tanaav-mukt vidyarthi' (tension-free students), 'gunvatta-parak shiksha' (quality education) and 'nakal-viheen pariksha' (cheating-free examination)". So due to this UP and MP region is

chosen and in order to collect data, sample shall be drawn from Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh (AMU) , GLA, Mathura and Jiwaji University, Gwalior.

It has been observed that Aligarh Muslim University's rank from 2017 to 2019 fluctuated a lot, like as per ranking by National Institutional Ranking Framework (NIRF) top 100 universities of India, Aligarh Muslim University ranked 11th in 2017, 10th in 2018 and 11th in 2019 and according to BRICS Asia ranking Aligarh Muslim University holds rank in band 131-140 in 2017, 161-170 in 2018 and hold rank 138 in 2019. According to THE world ranking, Aligarh Muslim University ranked in band 601-800 in 2017 and 2018 and 801-1000 in 2019 (*Ref. Table 2*).

	2017	2018	2019
NIRF	11	10	11
BRICS ASIA	131-140	161-170	138
THE Ranking	601-800	601-800	801-1000

Table 2. Aligarh Muslim University Ranking From 2017-2019

Source: *https://www.nirfindia.org; www.timeshighereducation.com; www.topuniversities.com/brics*

On the other side GLA university, Mathura has been accredited by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) with 'A' Grade in 2019 and hold rank in band 151-200 by National Institutional Ranking Framework 2019. This university have marked its presence in various magazines like it ranks 4th among all private universities in India by the Sun Magazine (*Ref. Table 3*). According to Outlook-ICARE India University Ranking 2019 GLA holds rank 46th among top 50 private state universities. But GLA, Mathura holds 340th rank in India and holds 6863 world rank by UniRank 2019.

	UP	INDIA
Times B school	2	6
Dainik Jagran	1	-
Careers 360	-	AAA
India Today	3	-
NAAC	-	A
NIRF	-	151-200

Table 3. GLA UNIVERSITY RANKING 2019

Source*: http://indiatoday.intoday.in; www.nirfindia.org/2019/Ranking2019; www.gla.ac.in*

And on the other side Jiwaji University, Gwalior has witnessed a logarithmic phase of growth and has been volunteered for assessment and accreditation by National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) with 'A' Grade in 2019 and according to UniRank university ranking 2019 Jiwaji holds 101 rank in India and holds 3493 rank in world. Thus, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, GLA, Mathura and Jiwaji University, Gwalior are selected as sample frame for the study.

5.2.2.1 Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh (AMU)

Aligarh Muslim University was established in 1920, and evolved out of the Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental College (MAO College) which was set up in 1877 by the great visionary and social reformer, Sir Syed Ahmad khan. The university is spread over 467.6 hectares in the city of Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh. It has more than 28,000, students, 1,342 teachers and some 5,610 non-teaching staff on its rolls. The university now has 12 faculties comprising 98 teaching departments, 3 academies and 15 centres and institutions. There are 19 halls of residence for students with 80 hostels. AMU has also established centres at Malappuram, Kerala (2011), Murshidabad, West Bengal (2010), Kishanganj, Bihar (2014), and a site has been identified for Aurangabad, Maharashtra centre.

5.2.2.2 GLA University, Mathura

GLA University is a private recognized university approved by the AICTE, located in Mathura Uttar Pradesh, India. GLA University, Mathura is approved and recognized by University Grants Commission (UGC), NCTE and Pharmacy Council of India. It has been accredited by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) with 'A' Grade. GLA University was started with the establishment of GLA Institute of Technology & Management offering B.Tech and MCA programs, in the year 1998 by the current Chancellor Mr. Narayan Das Agrawal. In the year 1999, MBA program was introduced with 60 seats. It was in 2006 when GLA group of institutions came into existence with establishment of three new institutions, namely GLA Institute of Management, GLA Institute of Professional Studies, and GLA

Institute of Pharmaceutical Research. New courses like BBA, BCA, B.Sc. Biotech, B. Pharma were introduced under these institutions. The GLA University, Mathura is managed by GLA Group of Institutions that later, in 2010, grew to become the GLA University through the U.P. State Legislative Act of 2009 (UP Act 21 of 2010).

5.2.2.3 Jiwaji University, Gwalior

Jiwaji University Gwalior came into existence on May 23, 1964, through M.P. Govt. Ordinance no. 15 of 1963. Late Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan, the then President of India, laid the foundation stone on 11th December 1964 at a sprawling campus of over 225 acres of land at Naulakha Parade ground. This was a generous contribution of Scindia family, in particular Kailashwasi Maharaja Shrimant Jiwaji Rao Scindia and late Rajmata Shrimati Vijayaraje Scindia. The institution was christened after the name of Kailashwasi Shrimant Jiwajirao Scindia as a standing memorial to his persona. The motto of the university is embedded in its logo Vidyaya Prapyate Tejah**.**

5.2.3 Sampling Design

A good sample is true representative of the population. For the purpose of this study, Judgmental and Snowball sampling will be used to draw appropriate representative sample from the population.

5.2.3.1 Calculation of Sample Size

The population from which sample is to be drawn is finite in nature. For calculation of sample size of finite population, first of all, sample size, is to be calculated without considering finite population correction factor. To calculate the sample size without considering finite population correction factor, the following formula is used:

Here, n_0 = Sample size without considering finite population correction factor

σ = Standard Deviation

Z = Standard normal distribution for 95% confidence level equivalent to 1.96 and,

D = Degree of precision desired

$$n_0 = \frac{\sigma^2 \times Z^2}{D^2}$$

In order to obtain a representative and realistic sample size, the results of sample size from 3 scenarios are compared:

Scenario 1- Estimating a low standard deviation and low degree of precision.

Scenario 2- Estimating a moderate standard deviation and moderate degree of precision.

Scenario 3- Estimating a high standard deviation and high degree of precision.

The results are summarized in table 6

Table 4: Comparative Analysis Taking Different Values of σ and D.

	SD	**Z**	**D**	**n_0**
Scenario 1	0.5	1.96	0.5	3.84
Scenario 2	1	1.96	0.3	42.68
Scenario 3	1.5	1.96	0.1	864.36
Total				910.89
Average				**304**

Taking an average of the all the three scenarios, considered taking different values of σ and D, sample size without considering finite population correction factor is computed to be 304. The sample size is distributed between three universities in proportion of their size, in total population. The calculated sample size is higher than 10% of total population and thus, sample size after considering finite population correction factor is calculated by following formula:

$$n = \frac{n_o \times N}{n_o + (N-1)}$$

Here, n= Sample size after considering finite population correction factor

n0 = sample size without considering finite population correction factor

N = size of population

Table 5: Calculation of Sample Size after Considering Finite Population Correction Factor

	N*	**n_0**	**n_0 * N**	**n_0 + (N-1)**	**N**
AMU, ALIGARH	1496	220	329120	1715	192
GLA, MATHURA	448	66	29568	513	58
JIWAJI, GWALIOR	123	18	2214	140	16
TOTAL	**2067**				**266**

Source: www.gla.ac.in; www.amu.ac.in; www.jiwaji.edu.in

The sample size calculated after finite population correction factor is 266, out of which 192 items will be drawn from AMU, Aligarh, 58 items will be drawn from GLA, Mathura and 16 items will be drawn from Jiwaji, Gwalior.

Finally, the sample size of universities is distributed as Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors in proportion of their size in the respective university's population.

From 192 sample items of AMU, Aligarh, 65 professors, 37 associate professors and 90 assistant professors will be drawn as sample. Out of 58 sample items of GLA, Mathura, 7 professors, 4 associate professors and 47 assistant professors will be drawn as sample. And from 16 sample items of Jiwaji, Gwalior, 9 professors, 1 associate professor and 6 assistant professors will be drawn as sample.

Table 6: Sample Size and Its Proportionate Distribution

	Professors*	**Associate Professors****	**Assistant Professors*****	**N**
AMU, Aligarh	65	37	90	192
GLA, Mathura	7	4	47	58
JIWAJI	9	1	6	16
Total Sample Size	81	42	143	266

* (Total Professors/Total University Population) x n

** (Total Associate Professors/Total University Population) x n

*** (Total Assistant Professors/ Total University Population) x n

5.2.4 Sources of Data Collection

To determine the objectives of the proposed study, data will be collected from both primary as well as secondary sources.

5.2.4.1 Primary Data

To fulfil the objectives and test hypotheses, primary data will be collected from Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors of various public and private universities with help of structured questionnaires and personal interviews. Before preparing a questionnaire, few target respondents will be interviewed. Thereafter, a structured questionnaire will be prepared which will be exposed to a pilot test to

check its reliability. Any amendment which would be felt necessary will be made in the final questionnaire before administering it to all 265 respondents.

5.2.4.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data will provide the information and facts about the universities and the factors of workplace ostracism in public and private universities. Secondary data, for the study will be collected from the following sources:

- Magazines
- Newspapers
- Websites
- Books
- Journals etc.

5.2.5 Statistical Tools

To test the given hypotheses and survey findings scientifically, researcher is keen to analyse the data by using appropriate statistical tools like ANOVA (analysis of variance), correlation, regression and suitable test of significance etc.

5.2.6 Managerial Implications Of The Study

The study will be helpful in upgrading the performance of teaching staff of selected universities in India. India is world‟s third largest producer of graduates in a year but only 15 percent of these graduates have employable skills on hands. The deteriorated quality of students partly reflects the degradation in quality of teaching staff in universities. Workplace ostracism is empirically proved to be one of the major reasons for reduction in quality of employee‟s job performance. This study will be helpful in identifying the impact of workplace ostracism on workplace behaviour among teaching staff in selected universities of India. The study will also identify various causes or reasons of workplace ostracism and at the same time it will deal with various attitudinal and behavioral outcomes like organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisafaction,emotional exhaustion,job performance and deviant behaviour thus enabling the selected

universities to control those factors which are contributing in increasing the level of workplace ostracism which will ultimately result in increment in favorable behaviour like organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisfacton, job performance and decrement in unfavorable behaviour like emotional exhaustion and deviant behaviour. Increased organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisfacton and decreased emotional exhaustion and deviant behaviour will improve the quality of performance of teaching staff in universities, which will enhance the quality of higher education system of India.

SECTION 6

6 PROPOSED CHAPTERIZATION

The structure of the proposed study will be as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 4: Analysis and Results

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

REFERENCES

Balliet, D., & Ferris, D. L. (2012). Ostracism and prosocial behavior: A social dilemma perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes 120 (2013) 298–308*.

Bester, J., Stander, M. W., & Zyl, L. E. (2015). Leadership empowering behaviour, psychological empowerment, organisational citizenship behaviours and turnover intention in a manufacturing division. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*.

Chen, Y., & Li, S. (2018). Relationship Between Workplace Ostracism and Unsafe Behaviors: The Mediating Effect of Psychological Detachment and Emotional Exhaustion.

Chen, Y., & Li, S. (2019). The Relationship Between Workplace Ostracism and Sleep Quality: A Mediated Moderation Model. *Frontiers in Psychology*.

Chung, Y. W. (2015). The mediating effects of organizational conflict on the relationships between workplace ostracism with in-role behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Conflict Management Vol. 26 Iss 4 pp*.

Chung, Y. W. (2017). The role of person–organization fit and perceived organizational support in the relationship between workplace ostracism and behavioral outcomes. *Australian Journal of Management 2017, Vol. 42(2) 328 –349* .

Chung, Y. W. (2018). Workplace ostracism And workplace behaviors: A moderated mediation model of perceived stress and psychological empowerment. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping An International Journal*.

Chung, Y. W., & Kim, T. (2017). Impact of using social network services on workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, and innovative behaviour. *Behaviour & Information Technology*.

Erkutlu, H., & Chafra, J. (2019). Impact of behavioral integrity on workplace ostracism The moderating roles of narcissistic personality and psychological distance. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education Vol. 8 No. 2*.

Fatima, A. (2011). Impact of Workplace Ostracism on Counter Productive Work Behaviors: Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction . *Abasyn Journal of Social Sciences – Volume 9*.

Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Berry, J. W., & Lian, H. (2008). The Development and Validation of the Workplace Ostracism Scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology Vol. 93*.

Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., & Morrison, R. (2014). Ostracism, Self-esteem, and Job Performance: When do we Self-verify and when do we Self-enhance? *Academy of Management Journal*.

HAQ, I. U. (2014). WORKPLACE OSTRACISM AND JOB OUTCOMES: MODERATING EFFECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL. *Management Knowledge and Learning International Conference* . Slovenia.

Hitlan, R. T., & Noel, J. (2009). The Influence of Workplace Exclusion and Personality on Counterproductive Work Behaviors. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*.

Hitlan, R. T., Kelly, K. M., Schepman, S., & Schneider, K. T. (2006). Language Exclusion and the Consequences of Perceived Ostracism in the Workplace. *The American Psychological Association*.

JAVED, S., SHAH, H. S., & BASHIR, T. (2018). WORKPLACE OSTRACISM AS A PREDICTOR OF EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AND EMPLOYEE TURNOVER- EVIDENCE FROM THE BANKING SECTOR. *42nd International Academic Conference.* Rome.

KAYA, C., ATAMAN, G., & AYDIN, B. Y. (2017). WORKPLACE OSTRACISM AND WORK ENGAGEMENT: THE MODERATING ROLE OF NEUROTICISM. *International Journal of Business and Management*.

KHANNA, V. (2016). PREDICTORS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT: THE CENTRALITY OF WORKPLACE .

Leung, A. S., L.Z.Wu, Chen, Y., & Young, M. N. (2011). The impact of workplace ostracism in service organisation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

Lustenberger, D. E., & Jagacinski, C. M. (2010). Exploring the Effects of Ostracism on Performance and Intrinsic Motivation.

Lustenberger, D. E., & Jagacinski, C. M. (2010). Exploring the Effects of Ostracism onPerformance and Intrinsic Motivation. *Human Performance, 23:4, 283-304*.

Naz, S., Li, P. D., Khan, S., & Khan, H. S. (2017). Comparative Analytical Study of Teachers' Personality Type (A and B) to Study the Consequences of Ostracism. *IJSRSET*.

O'Reilly, J., Robinson, S. L., Berdahl, J. L., & Banki, S. (2014). Is Negative Attention Better Than No Attention? The Comparative Effects of Ostracism and Harassment at Work. *Organisation Science*.

Robinson, O. (2013). Invisible at Work: An Integrated Model of Workplace Ostracism.

Sahoo, B. C. (2015). *Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Capital towards the relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Work attitudes.*

Scott, K. L., & Duffy, M. K. (2015). ANTECEDENTS OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM: NEW DIRECTIONS IN RESEARCH AND INTERVENTION. *Research in Occupational Stress and Well Being, Volume 13*.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement, and Validation . *The Academy of Managment Journal*.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement, and Validation . *The Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 38*, pp. 1442-1465.

Steinbauer, R., Renn, R., Chen, S. H., & Rhew, N. (2018). Workplace ostracism, self-regulation, and job performance: Moderating role of intrinsic work motivation. *The Journal of Social Psychology*.

Williams, K. (2001). *Ostracism: The power of silence.* New York: Guilford Press.

Williams, K. D. (1997). Social Ostracism. *Aversive Interpersonal Behaviours*.

Williams, K. D. (2009). Ostracism: A Temporal Need-Threat Model. In *Advances in experimental social psychology. Advances in experimental social psychology, Vol. 41* (pp. 275-314). San Diego, CA, US: Elsevier Academic Press.

Williams, K. D., & Nida, S. A. (2011). Ostracism: Consequences and Coping. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*.

Wu, C.-H., Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., & Lee, C. (2015). Why and when workplace ostracism inhibits organizational citizenship behaviors: an organizational identification. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*.

Wu, L., Wei, L., & Hui, C. (2011). Dispositional Antecedents and Consequences of Workplace Ostracism:An Empirical Examination.

Wu, L.-Z., Yim, F. H.-k., Kwan, H. K., & Zhang, X. (2012). Coping with Workplace Ostracism: The Roles of Ingratiation and Political Skill in Employee Psychological Distress. *Journal of Management Studies 49*.

Yang, J., & Treadway, D. C. (2016). A Social Influence Interpretation of Workplace Ostracism and Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*.

Yang, Y. W. (2017). The mediating effects of organization-based self-esteem for the relationships between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviors. *Baltic Journal of Management, Vol. 12*.

Yijing Lyu, & Hong Zhu. (2017). The Predictive Effects of Workplace Ostracism on Employee Attitudes:A Job Embeddedness Perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*.

ZENG, A. C. (2016). Workplace ostracism and deviant and helping behaviors: The moderating role of 360 degree feedback. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.

Zhang, X., & Dai, L. (2015). The Relationship between Neuroticism and Experience of Workplace Ostracism in New Employees. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*.

Zhang, X., & Kwan, H. K. (2015). Workplace ostracism and Employee performance outcomes: The Pragmatic and Psychological Effects.

Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Sheard, G. (2013). Workplace Ostracism and Hospitality employees counter productive work behaviors: The joint moderating effects of proactive personality and political skill. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

Zheng, X., Yang, J., Ngo, H.-Y., Liu, X.-Y., & Jiao, W. (2016). Workplace Ostracism and Its Negative Outcomes Psychological Capital as a Moderator. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*.

Zimmerman, C. A., Carter-Sowell, A. R., & Xu, a. X. (2018). Examining Workplace Ostracism Experiences in Academia: Understanding How Differences in the Faculty Ranks Influence Inclusive Climates on Campus. *Frontiers in Psychology*.

Annexure: Synthesized Matrix

SYNTHESIZED MATRIX OF LITERATURE REVIEW

S.No	Author	Workplace Ostracism	Job Satisfaction	Emotional Exhaustion	Deviant Behaviour	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Psychological Empowerment
1	Balliet & Ferris, 2012	✓				✓	
2	Bester et.al., 2015					✓	✓
3	Chen & Li, 2018	✓		✓			
4	Chen & Li, 2019	✓					
5	Chung & Kim, 2017	✓	✓				
6	Chung, 2015	✓				✓	
7	Chung, 2017	✓			✓	✓	
8	Chung, 2018	✓					✓
9	Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016	✓					
10	Fatima, 2011	✓	✓		✓		
11	Ferris,et al., 2008	✓	✓		✓	✓	
12	Ferris et al., 2014	✓			✓	✓	
13	Haq, 2014	✓					
14	Hitlan & Noel, 2009	✓			✓		
15	Hitlan et al., 2006	✓				✓	
16	Javed et al., 2018	✓					
17	Kaya et al., 2017	✓					

18	Khanna, 2016	✓					
19	Leung, et al., 2011	✓					
20	Lustenberger et al., 2010	✓					
21	Lyu & Zhu, 2017	✓					
22	Naz, et al., 2017	✓		✓			
23	O'Reilly et al., 2014	✓					
24	Scott & Duffy, 2015	✓					
25	Steinbauer, et al., 2018	✓					
26	Williams & Nida, 2011	✓					
27	Williams, 2009	✓					
28	Wu, et al., 2015	✓				✓	
29	Wu, Wei, & Hui, 2011	✓					
30	Wu, et al., 2012	✓		✓			
31	Yang & Treadway, 2016	✓					
32	Yang Y. W., 2017	✓			✓		
33	Zhang & Dai, 2015	✓					
34	Zhang & Kwan, 2015	✓					
35	Zhao, Peng, & Sheard, 2013	✓					
36	Zheng, et al., 2016	✓					